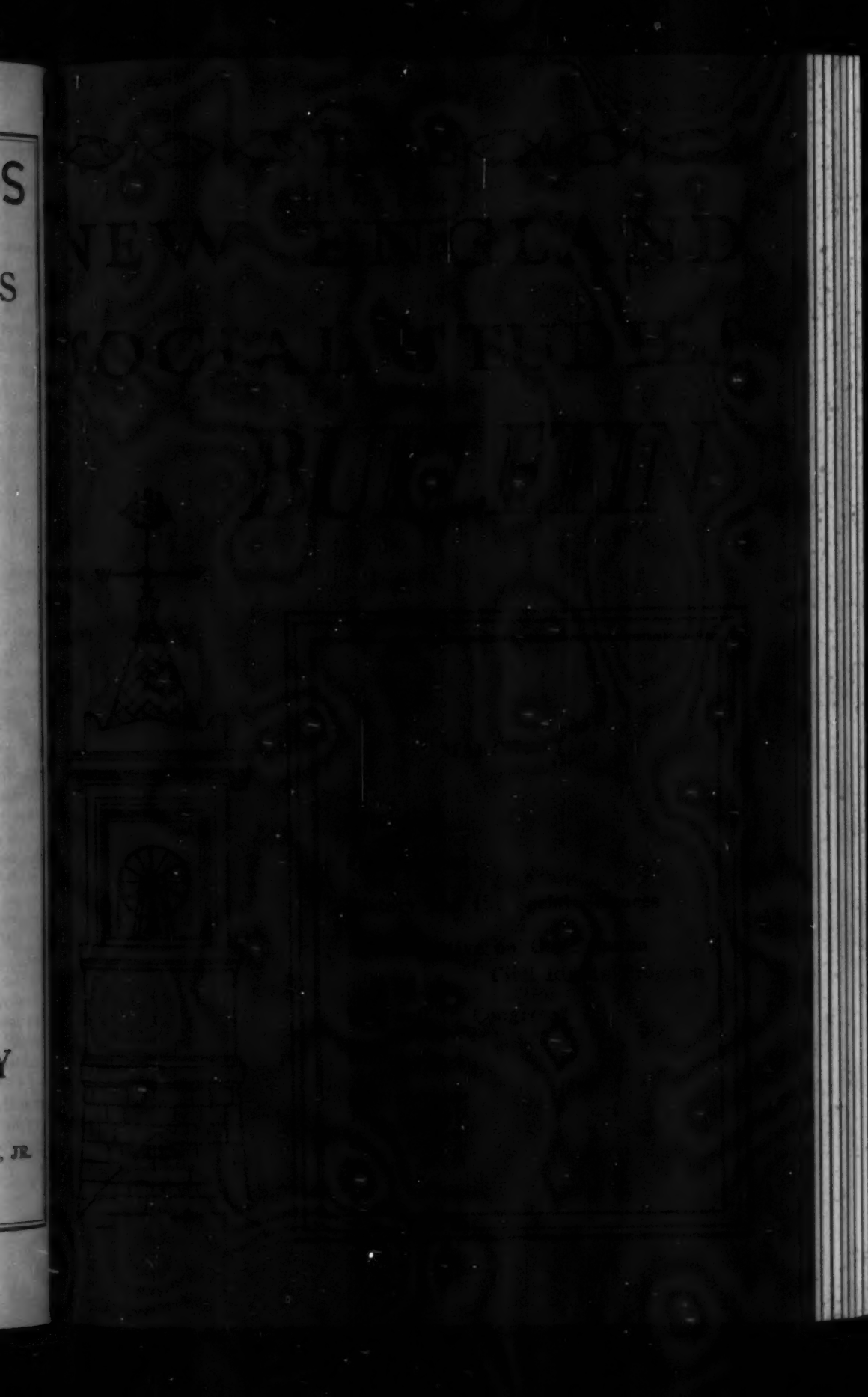

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EDITORIAL

The New Yorker in a recent issue commented on the action of the University of Washington in dismissing three professors because they belonged to the Communist Party. While the editor did realize the threat to academic freedom, he wrote, "It is best to have strong curiosity, weak affiliations." Further on, strangely enough, the editor writes that firing professors like this "abets communism by making millions of highly fit Americans a little cautious, a little fearful of having 'naughty thoughts,' a little fearful of believing differently from the next man, a little worried about associating with a group or party or club."

We certainly agree with the writer about the value of curiosity for anyone concerned with finding or teaching the truth. We do not agree, however, that a teacher should have "weak affiliations." In fact, we suspect that the tendency of teachers in recent years to avoid strong affiliations with political and social groups has been one reason for the decline in the prestige of the teaching profession in general.

What are the normal affiliations of a citizen? Membership in a church, a political party, a social club, a trade or professional organization. Business men, lawyers, doctors, farmers, workers in general, are the life blood of such organizations. Why not teachers also?

Because a person is actively affiliated with the Methodist Church does not unfit her for teaching the Reformation in a class in Social Studies. Since religion means something to this teacher, the chances are that the issues can be clearly and fairly presented. Too often we make the mistake of assuming that "weak affiliations" allow a person to be more objective in dealing with a subject like religion. Too often such a person witnesses the weaknesses of institutions from a distance but is unaware of the constructive forces within.

This is especially true, it seems to us, in the field of politics. Its all very well for teachers to consider themselves "independent" in politics and to criticise the political graft, especially on the municipal level. To put ideas across and assure election of good men to office in the immediate future, one must work apparently through one of the older parties. Instead of so much criticism of our political system from an ivory tower, we should like to see more active affiliation with one or the other of these political parties — especially on primary day.

At a time when Communist doctrines are attempting to discredit everything democratic, we cannot afford the luxury and danger of a teaching profession "weakly affiliated" with our basic American institutions. P.E.W.

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FALL MEETING

THOMAS C. SCHULLER,
Phillips Exeter Academy.

The fall meeting of the New England Association of Social Studies Teachers, held at Boston University on December 4, 1948, tackled a particularly burning issue for focusing the discussions. The theme of the section meetings was, "Education for democracy in a divided world." In times when instructors are being relieved of their professional positions for their partisanship toward communism it is fair to ask what believers in democracy should and can teach their classes. Ought we try to be as objective in exposing our students to the various political philosophies of life which surround them? Or should we angle our courses in such a way as to emphasize the merits of democracy? These are pertinent questions. Each section handled the problem in a different way, either directly or indirectly.

The elementary section, under the chairmanship of Vice-President William H. Cartwright, discussed the topic, "How the elementary program may provide for growth in personal and social living in a democracy." A study of the basic principles of democracy preceded an investigation of the opportunities and civic responsibilities involved in human relations in a free society. Many people participated in the program, both teacher and student interests being represented. The implication seemed to be that the elementary program can offer excellent opportunities for indoctrinating the school child in the benefits of democracy, even as the family indoctrinates the youngster in the advantages of well mannered, thoughtful and high principled life at home.

In the secondary section emphasis shifted around to stressing the importance of teaching objectivity and clarity of thinking. The point implied here was one of trust in valid ideas selling themselves in the open market of free discussion — and in such an examination democracy would invariably reveal its merits. Mr. Frederick O. Holmes of Newton High School was chairman at this session, while Mr. Robert S. Morris of the same school served as moderator of a demonstration of a "Junior Town Meeting of the Air." The "town meeting" idea was effective as a teaching technique, the sponsors suggested, because it emphasized opinions and not moral value judgments of right and wrong. The idea that two people can be right but that one may have a better solution to a problem than another, was to be encouraged. Thus the accentuation lay in the elimination of "black and white" thinking and in the encouragement of objective evaluation of the whole topic involved. Student participation here was particularly enthusiastic and of high ability, for the introduction of modern radio as a teaching technique with its program disciplines, stimulated the participants to sharper thinking and more valuable judgments.

The general meeting of the whole Association examined the topic, "What can the schools do to promote world peace?" President Wilson C. Colvin was chairman and introduced Mr. Thomas H. Mahony, who spoke of world federalism as one avenue of activity in which students might well be able to do effective work.

In all cases the emphasis of discussions seemed to focus upon the importance of teaching students to examine all the facts available in any given investigation. Debating skill by a few was deemed not nearly so important as clear-thinking participation by many. Perhaps this is democracy's answer to communism in our schools: Search the facts and then propaganda for democracy will not be necessary.

HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

ROBERT F. CAMPBELL,
Clark University.

Historians and social scientists have often been accused of wearily elaborating the obvious, and it may be that the present article will serve only to document that accusation, for it will deal with some pretty obvious aspects of the relationship between history and the other social sciences. There is evidence, however, in the recent writings of historians and non-historians alike, that many of us may still be able to profit from an analysis of this relationship. Stuart Chase's most recent book, for example, has enhanced the prestige of many of the social sciences, but at the same time he gives little support to history's claim to be a social science. There is also evidence that many people inside and outside of the historical profession have a tendency to confuse Toynbee's magnificent visions with scientific history.

It will be my aim in this paper to state my conviction that the study of history is related in aims, methods, and techniques to the other social sciences and that in the teaching of history and in the training of historians this close relationship should be given greater emphasis than is now the case.

At the risk of appearing pontifical, I should like to begin by setting forth a half dozen or so of the assumptions that go to make up my "frame of reference" (that horrible phrase!). In so doing, some of the main lines of my argument will emerge without the need of further elaboration.

1. There is an objective reality outside human consciousness, and it is possible for human beings by analysis and empirical observation to discover more and more about the nature of that reality.

2. Knowledge of the objective reality of segments of the past may be achieved in the same manner, subject to the physical limitations of available records of the past.

3. The scientific method is the basic technique of historical inquiry upon which all attempts at historical synthesis must ultimately rest.

4. Such a scientific method involves the delineation of a problem, the framing of hypotheses that may "answer" that problem, and the testing of such hypotheses by various methods of verification including observation, historical comparison, and hypothetical reconstruction of the past (the last two designed as substitutes in the field of history for the experimental method).

5. In the words of Morris R. Cohen — "The safeguard against bias in the writing of history, as in the natural sciences, is not to indulge in useless resolution to be free of bias but rather to explore one's preconceptions, to make them explicit, to consider their alternatives, and thus to multiply the number of hypotheses available for the apprehension of historical significance."

6. Past human and social experience has been so varied and the data concerning that experience so vast, that any attempt to create a verifiable synthesis of universal history is practically impossible.

7. While interpretations of universal history such as Toynbee's are frequently valuable in providing fresh and imaginative insights into problems and as such may contribute to the formulation of hypotheses concerning the past that can be verified, they are essentially works of mortality and poetic imagination and their value must be determined by the canons of literary and theological rather than historical criticism.

There you are. As you see, these assumptions reveal that the writer has rather blandly accepted a fairly naive view of the theory of knowledge, has rejected the relativist view of history so ably set forth some years ago by

Charles Beard — (a view which I am afraid contributed to Beard's unhappy last works in the field of American foreign policy), has embraced the scientific method as his favorite method of historical inquiry, and has finally indicated a fairly definite skepticism with regard to the validity of any of the noble and philosophical interpretations of universal history so far advanced.

These are the general ideas that drive me to the conclusion that history shares with the other social sciences the fundamental attributes of scientific inquiry in the area of human behavior in society. It is obvious, of course, that the use of this method of inquiry in the social sciences may not involve the precision and certainty which we commonly associate with all the physical sciences, but it should scarcely need to be pointed out any longer, that modern physics gives little comfort to those who are seeking to find law, order, and certainty in the universe. There has been a tendency for many of us to over-estimate the "laws" of modern science and under-estimate those of inquiry in the field of society, not recognizing that in each case they are simply statements of probabilities. As a matter of fact, I would like to see engraved on the gates of all universities the emblem — "Here you may find truth, but do not expect to find certainty."

I will concede, however, that many of the sciences, including some of the social sciences, are in a better position to cope with the problem of prediction than is history. If you adopt a definition of science that rules out fields of knowledge that are unable to contribute to the science of prediction, then I suppose that the historians would have to retreat, but in their flight they would be in the company of quite a number of students of social behavior, including perhaps an occasional Gallup or Roper. At the same time, I think no one now would argue that we could learn nothing from history about the future, and I suggest that most European historians would be willing to make accurate predictions about the future course of Germany if she were permitted to be revived as a strong, political and industrial power within a weak Europe.

If you share my conviction that an organic relationship exists between history and the other social sciences, then you will perhaps be willing to share my further conviction that more emphasis should be placed upon this relationship in the teaching of history and in the training of historians. The historian is becoming increasingly dependent upon related fields of the social sciences for the tools of analysis that are essential to his trade. Robert Lynd has even suggested that a historian is a better historian if he or she has been trained in one of the other social sciences first. Ideally, it seems to me, a well-trained historian should have at least a smattering of all the social sciences, and be fairly expert in at least one, in addition to his historical field. Certainly anyone who attempts to make any very broad generalizations about a past society should be familiar with some of the concepts of modern cultural anthropology.

The readers of the *Bulletin* need very little convincing, I am sure, that a wide knowledge of the social sciences tends toward refreshing and stimulating teaching of history. They will, perhaps, also share my regret that so many of us are inadequately trained in these social sciences.

"They (our forefathers) valued liberty both as an end and as a means. They believed liberty to be the secret of happiness and courage to be the secret of liberty." — *Louis D. Brandeis.*

A PERSPECTIVE ON THE TRUMAN CIVIL RIGHTS PROGRAM

HOWARD PALMER JOHNSON,
Phillips Exeter Academy.

Despite the controversy that surrounds them, the so-called civil rights proposals of the President are pretty mild doses of democratic spirit. To provide for free elections by eliminating the poll tax from voting requirements, to make lynching a federal offense, to abolish racial segregation in interstate carriers, and to discourage discriminatory employment practices by federal statute — all these must seem to any innocent from abroad obvious matters in the nation that regards itself as the world's great champion of freedom.

Indeed, anyone reading the Constitution of the United States as a layman, without regard for legal and judicial fictions, might readily conclude that vigorous and honest enforcement of the supreme law of the land would be quite enough. He might naively ask why it is necesary to have flamboyant fights in party conventions and in the halls of Congress over a relatively simple matter. All persons born or naturalized in the United States are citizens of the United States, and as such are entitled to the privileges of citizens. They are entitled to equal protection from all law-makers and from all law-enforcers at every level of the nation's government, federal, state, and local. Nowhere does the Constitution provide that persons of Negro, Oriental, Mexican, or Jewish descent shall be given special handling. Why, then, should there be any question at all as to whether citizens shall actually receive what they are entitled to receive?

Such simple logic is, however, patently inadequate, for constitutional government is always but an ideal. Human institutions are not merely conceived by *homo sapiens*. They also must be managed, after their conception, by the same species. Churches profess to follow Christ, universities proclaim devotion to truth, corporations would have us believe that they exist primarily in order to serve the public. Likewise, all governments, whether totalitarian or democratic, claim that what they do is done to promote the general welfare. Yet in all these instances the discrepancy between profession and performance is easy to discern.

The American system of government has been, at least since the Civil War, based on the theory that there shall be no discrimination among its citizens on the basis of race, religion, or national origin. Despite the theory, discrimination on such grounds is still a conspicuous feature of American life. The forms which it takes are multiple, varied, and confined to no particular region; and the chief victims are Oriental, Mexican, Indian, Jewish, and Negro. Public, legally protected (or legally tolerated) discriminations include prohibitions of inter-racial marriages, restrictive covenants in deeds to prevent property sales to certain groups, mandatory segregation in public places, conveyances, school, and hospitals; while private, extra-legal disdiscriminations in factories, offices, hotels, restaurants, theaters, schools, churches, and even in funeral parlors exist everywhere. Unpleasant as it may be to admit, neither the American government nor the American people have come very near to practicing at home what they preach so well abroad.

While this state of affairs prevails, President Truman's proposals to Congress must, from any ideal point, appear modest indeed. He asks for the elimination of the poll tax as a requirement for voting. Yet the poll

tax is not strictly a racial weapon, since it tends to discourage or prevent voting by all poor persons, Caucasian and Negro alike. He proposes to make lynchings a federal crime and to place some degree of responsibility on communities where it may occur. This is merely a device designed to make more difficult a vicious practice which most Americans, Southern as well as Northern, honestly condemn. As far as segregation is concerned, surely its prohibition on interstate carriers would hardly constitute a comprehensible attack on the many barriers that divide racial and religious and national groups from one another all over the country. Finally, the passage of some kind of national fair employment act would be unlikely to effect changes in the whole picture any more rapidly than similar measures in several states are already doing. In this complex area it may be supposed that change will come only with glacial speed anyhow.

Although these proposals are really milk and water, they have aroused opposition which is ironically reminiscent of the days of slavery. Reactionary Southern Democrats have split their party almost as they did in 1860. Like the fire-eaters of the eighteen-fifties, they have raised the tattered banner of state rights. They have used the nasty phrase "police state." They have hauled out the dogma of white supremacy. To questions of equity and democratic ideals they have given a defiant and determined answer of race.

Along with the Dixiecrats go certain Southern liberals. Eschewing state rights and racism, they declare that the South is not yet ready for the Truman program. Insistence on its passage, they contend, will simply promote reaction of the Talmadge-Rankin variety and further delay the real emancipation of the Negro. Like the fathers of the Confederacy, they believe that the South should be left to work out its own solutions. They warn of the dangers of violence, and urge expediency.

While these arguments come from the South, the proponents of the measures emphasize the importance of race conflict in international relation and point to the indisputable fact that American racial policy furnishes fuel in dangerous quantity to the Communist propaganda machine. They insist, as vehemently as the abolitionists did, that the South is peculiar and that it must be forced to conform to the democratic principles which America represents in the world revolution of today. They minimize the prospect of violence, and condemn the expedient approach.

From the confusion of argument and epithet some conclusions may be drawn. The proposals that are being fought over are in themselves merely symbolic gestures. They are pointed mainly at one section of the country and at one aspect of the problem of minorities. And their intrinsic force has been over-estimated on both sides of the controversy. Nevertheless, men often live by symbols, and gestures frequently play a large part in human relations. Consequently, now that the Congress has been forced into a position where it must either agree or refuse to make a gesture on behalf of constitutional democracy, it should certainly not refuse. If it does refuse, those who scoff at American democratic ideals both at home and abroad will have won another victory.

Few people are aware that Congress actually submitted 12 amendments to the states in 1789, only 10 of which were ratified and became our Bill of Rights. It was the first two proposed amendments that were rejected. The first one was a rather cumbersome one dealing with the number of seats in the House of Representatives. The second might have been a good amendment to adopt. It stated "No law varying the compensation for services of Senators and Representatives, shall take effect, until an election of Representatives shall have intervened."

FAREWELL TO CONGRESS?

WILLIAM WORTHINGTON,
Kent School.

The true significance of the election of 1948 has so far been obscured from the politicos, pundits and the public. As yet few can see the forest for the trees. Many explanations have been offered, many reasons advanced, for the unexpected action of the voters, but the great change signalized by the result of the election has not yet been recognized. In time, when history allows a proper perspective, a true assessment will become possible. Here is a prophecy about the nature of that assessment.

The principle of separation of powers, with its system of checks and balances, has been under constant strain since 1933. The voters in 1948, by turning out the Republican majorities in the Capitol and by retaining President Truman in the White House, unwittingly insured that Congress never would re-establish its independence.

The Constitution places all legislative powers in the hands of Congress, and all executive powers in the presidency. But the Constitution assigns to the President certain checks which enable him to influence Congress in the exercise of its functions, and likewise there are granted other checks to Congress by which it may influence the exercise by the President of his executive functions. These checks are designed to keep either the executive or Congress from completely subordinating the other branch. From time to time the danger of such subordination has been great, but on each occasion there has been a reaction in favor of the under dog. Now, apparently, the presidency has won out. Mr. Truman has emerged the true successor to Mr. Roosevelt, and the future Presidents, like these two, will be the indispensable, most vital part of the legislative branch.

There is no need here to review the history of the struggle. The salient fact is that the struggle was long. Temporarily, from time to time, Congress held the whip. During the administrations of Monroe and Andrew Johnson, for example, Congress interfered very seriously with purely executive functions. Presidents Lincoln and Wilson actually held, for a while, the dominant role in the affairs of Congress. Under such men as Polk, McKinley, Taft, and Coolidge, a delicate and precarious balance was attained. Theodore Roosevelt, Cleveland and Jackson, took the initiative; while under Pierce, Buchanan, Benjamin Harrison, and Harding, Congress carried the ball.

From the struggle two facts have emerged with surprising clarity. First, the outstanding legislation which Congresses have enacted have been inspired by the executive branch. When, in other words, the President has undertaken to lead Congress in its legislative functions, the resulting acts have been more constructive than otherwise. Conversely, Congress left to itself, has produced on the whole, less statesmanlike laws. Compare, for example, the Payne-Aldrich Tariff with the Underwood-Simmons Act. Compare the wisdom embodied in the Sherman Silver Purchase Act, written by Congress and merely approved by Harrison, with the wisdom of its repeal, which was recommended by Cleveland to a special session of Congress, and which was forced through that reluctant body by Cleveland's own efforts. These examples are cited to illustrate the fact rather than to prove it. The fact needs no proof — it is obvious to anyone familiar with national legislation between the Civil War and the inauguration of the New Deal.

The second fact is equally significant. To quote an authority: "The two political parties are distinctly inclined to align themselves on opposite sides

in this historic controversy. Certainly since the presidency of Andrew Jackson the Democratic Party has from time to time rallied around a 'tribune of the people,' as they have chosen to express it . . . On the other hand, the Whig-Republican leaders have been only a little more critical of Democratic tribunes than of Republicans who essayed such a role. Historically, Republican party philosophy . . . views with a jealous eye any pronounced shift of the center of gravity in the government to the President of the United States." Thus Republican leaders rebelled much more against a Lincoln or a Theodore Roosevelt than the Democratic leaders did against a Wilson.

Never have conditions or personalities been better combined to affect the course of the struggle than in 1933. The public demanded action, the Democrats controlled Congress, and F. D. Roosevelt was in the White House. Immediately the President became more than a leader of Congress; he was the indispensable part of the legislative branch. The "rubber stamp Congress" voted its assent to laws actually written in the White House. This was a voluntary, a revokable, a temporary abdication. But somehow Congress never recovered its independence, or the public esteem. When they tried their hands at enacting laws on their own initiative they produced such results as the Johnson Debt Default Act, or the Neutrality laws of 1936 and 1937. When they fought the President and won, on the issue of re-organizing the Supreme Court, it did not seem to make much difference. Emergency succeeded emergency. Before the public realized that the depression was over (if it was) we had a "recession." Then Germany invaded Poland, then France fell, then war came to American soil. And through it all the same personality stayed in the White House, pulling the strings that made Congress work.

Two events of 1945, the death of Mr. Roosevelt and the termination of the war, brought an end to that period. Then came the critical stage. With Mr. Truman as President and with the country at peace, could Congress recover its independent stature? Would reactions in that direction ensue as they had on similar occasions in the past, on the death of Lincoln, for example, or during the close of the Wilson administration?

For a while the pattern of events was familiar. President Truman's popular support declined. In 1946 the opposition party was given majorities in both houses of Congress. The President was handed a rebuff similar to those administered in 1930, 1918, 1910, 1894 and 1890. Five times such overturns had presaged an overturn two years later in the White House. Would history repeat itself?

The Republican Party, which historically is the more jealous guardian of Congressional prerogatives, controlled Congress. If that body had convinced the public that it could legislate wisely and constructively, that presidential interference was not a necessary part of the law-making process, the public unquestionably would have elected a Republican President, and the balance of power would have been restored. But Congress failed. Future scholars may demonstrate that the 80th Congress was not as bad as Mr. Truman said in the campaign, but the public did not think it had done a good job. Offered a choice between President and Congress it chose the President. And Mr. Truman emerges the most powerful influence in the national legislature.

Some will say that this cannot be true. They will say that Truman is a poor leader who cannot act such a role. The answer to that is plain. When the politicians thought he was a poor leader they made a grave error. The Republicans ignored him. Many Democrats deserted him. But by his personal triumph at the polls he has established himself as the one figure with public support *whether he is a poor leader or not.* Congress must perforce

follow him as assiduously as any Congress has followed any of his predeces-sors. In the past Congress followed strong presidents — Jackson, Lincoln, Wilson and the Roosevelts. Now they are to be led by a man whose qualities so far have been appraised as about the equivalent of Buchanan's. And if Congress must obey the whims of such a man, how can they ever recover for themselves their constitutional functions?

Others may say that reaction will come sooner or later. That is possible, but it may be too late. In political science, a power not exercised vigorously is soon lost. Can Congress ever recover? As it becomes less powerful it will attract less attention, and, more serious, fewer able men. It might de-teriorate quickly. If it is to survive as a force it must undertake gigantic reforms, and it must work fast.

George Bernard Shaw, in his Metropolitan Opera House address in 1933, speaking in the midst of those stirring one hundred days of the early New Deal, stated in effect that the Constitution was a guarantee that the United States would never be properly governed. To witness this he pointed out that the constructive program then being launched was possible only be-cause of Mr. Roosevelt's skill in dodging the Constitutional provision that "All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States."

The election of 1948, for better or for worse, has effectively repealed that provision.

BOOKS

Benjamin Gitlow, *The Whole of Their Lives*, Scribner, 1948, pp. 387 in-cluding index, $3.50. This is a history of communism in America and an in-timate portrayal of its leaders. Benjamin Gitlow, the author, was once head of the American Communist Party until expelled for defying Stalin in 1929. At a meeting of the Praesidium in Moscow he refused to vote as the party directed. He had come to believe that Stalin was more interested in power and dictatorship than social change.

The Whole of Their Lives should aid many American people to appre-ciate the drive behind communism and at the same time to be more aware of its threat. Here one will find John Reed, Earl Browder, William Z. Foster, Eugene Dennis. Yet more important for most of us who have been rather uncritical though eager minds will be the disclosure of what this "debased religion" can do to what, in our Western, Christian heritage, we still call "the integrity of the individual."

The book is not well arranged. There are too many incidents and names complicating the main theme. Yet the story is there and it may aid many of us to distinguish between the good and bad bills that Congress is bound to consider in the next months for the control of this threat to our free institu-tions.

There is good reason to question whether pure democracy — or its re-publican equivalent — is the best government possible. And there is a real doubt, too, regarding the maximum size a nation can become while still re-taining the features of democracy. Certainly democracy lends itself least willingly of all governments to efficiency of management. At its best in America it marks progress by fits and starts. Yet Avery Craven and Wal-ter Johnson show in their new textbook, *The United States* "Experiment in Democracy" (Boston, 1947) that for all its invitations to bumbling inef-ficiency democracy still can be made to offer the greatest chance for a worth-while life to the individual.

This one-volume book of 840 pages emphasizes the history of ideas in America. It focuses upon American attempts to establish a unique government of dual citizenship that would protect property rights and human rights with equal vigor. The government was admittedly an experiment, an expedient solution in times of great threat. The remainder of American history is studied from the point of view of watching this experiment working out while new economic, political and social forces arise to challenge its validity and flexibility. Always the idea is related to the contemporary conditions for fairest examination. "Since there was no such thing as popular will in 1787, it is difficult to say convincingly that the Constitution was made against the wishes of the people. The term *popular will* had little real significance until the time of Andrew Jackson." Thus the study is of two-fold nature: An examination of the growth in meaning of the word "democracy"; and an examination of the effectiveness of democratic solutions to the ever-recurring problems of society.

Although Craven and Johnson's new book is filled with excellent maps, sparkling illustrations and pertinent documentary as well as explanatory quotations, there is still the unsatisfactory feature of attempting to relate the history of the United States in one volume. Wisely the authors have not tried to be all-inclusive, and so the text invites complementary readings for companion study for any full course treatment.

Enthusiasts for military history will be disappointed, because Craven and Johnson give but cursory treatment to battles of war. Missing also are full explanations of such topics as "transcendentalism" or "bimetallism" and allied terms of metaphysical, economic or social philosophy. Definitions and development of the meanings of terms must be filled in from other sources. But the book is strong in catching clearly the essential factors of topical subjects and in keeping intact the continuity of development of an idea. Particularly strong are the sections showing the tie-in between Progressivism and the New Deal, and their relationship with Jeffersonian principles.

There is no question about the liberal prejudices of the two University of Chicago authors. Yet their bias never becomes propaganda, for every general statement is tied closely to factual documentation. Reading their book is a pleasure, for the writing is clean and clear. Added to that pleasure the reader gets the feeling of excitement, obviously felt by the authors, that for all their errors Americans have made great progress in making democracy provide for the individual what often prove to be antagonistic ideals: "Freedom" and "Equality of Opportunity." Such a national achievement *is*, after all, something to cheer about.

Teachers of the Middle Grades will find the new Scribner Social Studies Series worth examining. For these grades *Building Our Communities* comes first, to be followed by either *Building Our World* or *Building Our America*, whichever the teacher prefers. *Building Our Communities* explains, in story form, communities in the United States and Alaska and stresses the interrelation of people. *Building Our World* deals with the historical, geographical, and cultural factors of the Ancient World, Western Europe, The Far East, and Our Neighbors in this hemisphere. *Building Our America* devotes half its space to the Age of Exploration and Colonial America and gives the second half to our National Period, bringing the story down to the United Nations.

The authors are: Clyde B. Moore of Cornell, Gertrude M. Lewis of the New Hampshire Department of Education, Helen M. Carpenter of Trenton State Teachers College, and Fred B. Painter, Superintendent of Schools at Gloversville, N. Y. They have succeeded in their effort, it seems to us, to

make the series attractive so that children in the third, fourth and fifth grades will want to read it. The type is large, and the text is profusely illustrated with good pictures, some of which are photographs, others paintings, many special drawings.

The planned program for understanding maps and other geographical concepts, the index with its key to pronunciations, the up-to-date reading lists with notation on reading difficulty — all these supply invaluable teaching aids for the classroom teacher.

Teaching Controversial Issues, a booklet put out by the Junior Town Meeting League, is just the aid that many teachers have been looking for. "Change is inevitable, and change involves controversy." The controversy occurs, however, when "proposed solutions conflict with cherished interests, beliefs, or group affiliations of a section of citizens." In the absence of a supporting or guiding policy the hazards of teaching controversial issues cause teachers to emphasize the academic study of the problems of the past. Thus vitality in the course is lacking and the problems of today are sidestepped.

This excellent booklet shows the need of a policy formulated by the teachers, the administration, and the Board of Education. There must be agreement here. Other chapters deal with the Teacher's Part in Setting the Stage and Classroom Techniques. The teacher is warned that it is not his business to indoctrinate, for parents do not send "their children to school with the expectation that their basic ideas will be modified" His aim should be to establish an atmosphere of inquiry where ideas may be expressed that may lead to the solution of the current problem being discussed.

Copies of this booklet may be obtained, free of charge, by writing the Junior Town Meeting League, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.

Zoe A. Thralls, *The World, Its Lands and Peoples*, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1948, 496 pages, including index.

This textbook, which is adjusted to the Junior High level, is attractively styled and written. It seems to leave behind it the archaic method of expounding geographical facts for facts sakes. It puts to successful use the method of molding relative historical and sociological events and problems around the central core of geography. Miss Thralls seems to have adjusted her descriptive and geographical vocabulary and logic to a plane at which the Junior High student can readily comprehend and follow — definitely a good point.

The material, itself, is organized in an appealing and well-coordinated manner. The writer has taken the various climatic zones of the earth and used them as her categorial units for study, including in them the lands and nations of the earth. Thus, an excellent correlation and interdependency is attained in studying nations and their mutual climatic environment, problems and activities.

At the end of each unit are placed study questions, exercises and vocabulary to be mastered by the classroom and its activities.

Satisfactory and ample use is made of cleverly manipulated visual aids. All this is done with clear-cut and definite objectives, which supplement the regular literary material. Interesting and easily read charts and graphs, as well as maps, are used along with vivid and striking photographs which plainly depict various phases of life and environments in lands everywhere.

One of the most desirable features of this newly-published text is the frequent reference to historical and sociological problems and events which are directly related to geographical facts and phenomena. This worthy fea-

ture strengthens the logic, wisdom and theory of correlation among subject matter fields.

Another fine gesture manifested in Miss Thralls' book is her attempt to point out that even though each climatic belt produces certain economic goods more readily and easily than others, each area of the world benefits from the produce and activity of all — as well as suffering from any catastrophe. This, then, either consciously or accidentally, is an attempt through geography to show the student at an early age the necessity for international good will, toleration, brotherhood, cooperation, and an understanding of people and their environments.

Finally, it may be said that Miss Thralls has certainly made a brave attempt to produce in one consolidated work, that elusive combination of text, story-like style and refreshing visual aids, which is so appealing to students on the Junior High level.

Gordon W. Allport's *ABC's of Scapegoating* (a 20c Freedom Pamphlet published by Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'Rith, 212 Fifth Avenue, New York City 10) is a good pamphlet for the Social Studies teacher to read and leave on the table for her students. Teachers have to simplify so much to make issues clear that children and even adults are only too ready to blame a group or class for unfortunate actions and events that actually have a complex origin.

Adults, whether teachers or parents, are unaware how readily they transmit attitudes to eager children who remember what they have heard.

This clearly written pamphlet should enable teacher and student alike to recognize scapegoating when they meet it, help them to avoid it themselves, and provide some methods of combatting it.

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CONFERENCES

Under the sponsorship of Mount Holyoke and neighboring colleges, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, and other organizations, the Institute on the United Nations will hold its second session at South Hadley, Mass., from June 26 to July 23, 1949. One major world problem will be considered each week. These problems are:

June 26 - July 2: Human Rights and Individual Security.

July 3 - July 9: The Problem of European Union.

July 10 - July 16: Conflicts and Tensions in Asia.

July 17 - July 23: The Outlook for World Stability.

Speakers will include members of the United Nations Secretariat, delegates to the United Nations, officials of the State Department, and other governments, as well as other authorities in the field of international relations. Morning lectures will be followed by question and answer periods. Institute members will meet also in small discussion groups. Members will receive in advance selected reading lists for each week.

An important feature of the program is the weekly trip to Lake Success, made possible through the cooperation of United Nations officials. Recent documentary films on international problems will also be shown.

Those who wish to attend may register for one, two or three weeks, or for the full season. For further information write: Mary J. Levy, Executive Secretary, Mount Holyoke Institute on the United Nations, South Hadley, Mass.

* * * * *

"How Can We Reconcile Liberty and Social Controls?" is the key question underlying all the issues chosen for discussion at the 1949 Summer Institute for Social Progress at Wellesley.

This Unique vacation conference to be held July 2 to July 16 at Wellesley College is open to men and women of all vocations. Problems abroad magnified by East - West tension, government attacks on swings of boom and bust at home, steps towards world order through the United Nations and recent intercultural developments in local communities are among the subjects to be studied in forums and round tables.

Harry C. Meserve, pastor of the First Unitarian Church in Buffalo, N. Y., is Chairman of the Faculty, and Edward S. Lewis, Director of the Urban League of New York City, is Dean of Round Tables. Robert Bendiner, author of The Riddle of the State Department, heads the program committee. For a detailed program write Dorothy P. Hill, Director, 14 West Elm Avenue, Wollaston 70, Mass.

* * * * *

The Boston University School of Education has been conducting a series of conferences with Professor William H. Cartwright as chairman, to improve instruction in the Social Sciences. Among the remaining Open Conferences are the following:

April 6: "Teaching Controversial Issues in Social Studies," Dr. Erling Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia.

April 27: "The Place of Audio-Visual Aids in the Social Studies Program," Dr. William H. Hartley, State Teachers College, Towson, Md.

May 4: "Life Adjustment Education," Dr. Dorothy M. Meredith, Specialist in Social Studies, U. S. Office of Education.

These Conferences are open to teachers, principals, and superintendents without charge.

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